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Society is changing, so are students, and so must counselors and counseling. In the papers collected in this monograph, there is none which does not reflect a changing perception of the counselor and his function. Douglas Heath, in his keynote paper, "But Are They Educable?," is emphatic in suggesting counselors should stop counseling individuals and instead attempt to influence curriculum and community environment. Appel and Haak, using decision-making theory as a springboard, attack key assumptions which underly vocational education decision-oriented counseling. "Innovations in Counseling Teachers", Brown and Fuller suggest that counselors, if given a choice, should get out of the business of counseling with individual students and into the business of counseling teachers. Hall, in his article on video-tape, hypothesizes that total feedback on counseling would make for more accurate assessments than partial feedback (audio or video alone) in supervision. In her report on alcoholic parents, Vincent discusses recruiting clients and the results of this. Van Atta's paper, "Child Rearing and Creativity" presents an almost operant model of how creative behavior is developed. (Author/KJ)

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12th ANNUAL COUNSELORS' CONFERENCE

THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN

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INNOVATIONS IN COUNSELING

Edited by

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for

12th Annual Counselors' Conference

The University of Texas at Austin

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Introduction

There is a restlessness all around us that there has not been for a long time. There is a spirit of dissatisfaction with the established - a spirit which may be reflected in our new title, Innovations in Counseling. The old title, Information for Use in Counseling Studies, served us well through several years of Counselors' Conferences. Now society is changing, so are students and so must counselors and counseling.

In the papers collected in this monograph,there is none which does not reflect a changing perception of the counselor and his function. Douglas Heath, in the keynote paper, "But Are They More Educable?," is emphatic in suggesting that counselors should stop counseling and advising individual students and devote their energies to influencing the school curriculum and community environment. He implies not only that counselors have helped to nurture a lopsided value system but also that the method of individual counseling is probably ineffectual and certainly inefficient.

Appel and Haak, using decision-making theory as a spring board, attack several key assumptions which underly vocational-educational decision oriented counseling. While sometimes they may reach too far, it does seem clear that some fairly well "established" assumptions are rather shaky and require experimental scrutiny. Their work implies that decision-making in counseling of the future may involve much more contrived counselor behavior than is presently done.

Bown and Fuller in "Innovations in Counseling Teachers" like Heath, suggest that counselors, if given a choice, should get out of the business of counseling with individual students and into the business of counseling teachers. Further, they propose not that the counselor passively wait for the moments of readiness but that he actively engage in providing feedback to teachers which will loosen them up, that is, make them ready.

In "Video Tape in Counseling Supervision: The Contribution of Cue Sources to Judgments of Empathy", Hall hypothesized that total feedback on counseling would make for more accurate assessments of empathy than would partial feedback (audio or video alone). His data did not quite act as he predicted. His results suggest something about the dynamics of supervisory decision-making and possibly something about the source of judgments of empathy. In both cases, establishing patterns of supervision are challenged.

Vincent, in "The Alcoholic Parent - A Factor in Student Counseling: A Preliminary Report", reports on what might be described as a counseling research project. It is noteworthy that she not only recruited subjects but, in so doing, recruited clients as well. Her work is significant in that she identified and apparently established effective working relationships with clients whose participation in counseling she actively solicited. Furthermore, she emphasized a point rarely made: the child may be a significant force in parental growth and development.

Van Atta's paper, "Child Rearing and Creativity" presents an almost operant model of how creative behavior is developed. From the perspective of such papers as this, creativity begins to seem less mystical and the capacity to shape innovative behavior just out of reach. The time seems not far off when educators and school counselors as well as other agents of behavior change will be able to devise environments which nurture rather than stifle creative potential.

REVA

BUT ARE THEY MORE EDUCABLE?

Douglas Heath

My title for this talk is "But are they more educable?" Victor Appel's suggested title was "Meeting the Psychological Demands of the Collegiate Experience: What got in the way?" Because I like both titles, I am going to speak to both of them.

My first thesis is that although contemporary college freshmen may be better educated than we were when we were freshmen several decades ago, I doubt that they are any more educable than we were - in fact, they may even be less educable.

My second thesis is that in this ceaselessly changing world of ours the proper goal of educators is not to help students become better educated but to help them become more educable.

My third thesis is that everyone in this room should define himself to be an educator - that is, your goal as a guidance counselor should be to help students become more educable.

The author is Chairman and Professor of Psychology, Haverford College.

Now, what does it mean to say we should help students become more educable, rather than just to become better educated. Very simply, to become more educable is to become more open to continued growth and maturing. To become better educated, on the other hand, that is to learn how to read, to communicate clearly, to think logically, is probably one of the more important ways that many persons become more educable. There are other important ways to become more educable. Those of you who have ever fallen in love can testify to that. In fact, at my college, the most powerful educable experience our men report having is a close friendship with a neighboring Bryn Mawr college woman. Yet, too frequently, in our zeal to educate formally - to make Johnny ready by the age of three, to motivate a third grader to higher achievement by threatening him with the possibility he won't get into Dartmouth, to build bigger and bigger consolidated schools in order to offer more advanced placement opportunities and every new-fangled educational electronic gadget -- too frequently in such zeal to educate we only succeed in making our students less educable, more willing to "drop out", not only out of school but, like the hippies, out of our society as well.

To talk about the educability of our students, we must ask "Educable for what?" Certainly, the demands of the

situation for which we educate our students determine, in part, how educable they will be in that situation. As you well know, some students will be more educable in a college that stresses applied, practical, pragmatic courses than one that emphasizes philosophic, highly reflective and intuitive types of courses. But as an exaggerated generalization, I would like to assert - and defend later - that what is increasingly getting in the way of your efforts to help young people become more educable are, paradoxically, the changing psychological demands of the colleges and universities themselves.

Other than the demands of the colleges, what are the determinants that effect the educability of contemporary students? Or to put the question in Victor Appel's terms, what is getting in the way of the growth of our students? I want to speak to this question from the viewpoint of a psychologist who has had access to a rare, if not unique, source of data on all entering students to one college since the end of World War II. For over two decades, every entering freshman has been given the same battery of psychological tests during his first days at Haverford. Unfortunately, I have not been able to locate any other comparable data to check the reliability of the trends I will report. I cannot associate such trends with any specific changes in admission practice or policy. In speaking about such results to many public and

private school educators, psychiatrists, and ministers, in various parts of the country, I have become convinced that they probably describe changes now going on in the white middle and upper class young person from the suburban and metropolitan areas of our country. I suggest we may now be seeing the personality effects of our increasingly affluent, technological and mass-communicative society. Those of you who have been close to young people for two decades will be able to tell me if you have noted such trends occurring here in the southwest. I must emphasize that some of the trends that are limiting the educability of some contemporary students probably do not apply to a majority of our young people. What does concern me, however, is that if the trends continue as they have for the past two decades, then they will apply to large numbers of students in the nineteen seventies and eighties.

Let's now examine briefly some intellectual, educational skill, and motivational changes and then analyze in greater depth some personality changes that may affect the educability of students for college.

First, all of us are aware that most colleges report the average SAT scores of their entering freshmen have been steadily increasing over the years. Within the past decade, there has been a statistically significant increase in both verbal and quantitative scores at Haverford. The reaction

of faculty to such information has been predicable. They have expected higher quality academic work and more of it from their students. But, and quite paradoxically, tests of the freshman's general intelligence given after he has entered college do not indicate that he is any more capable of thinking conceptually and relationally than entering freshmen were a decade ago. Could one source of the strain that many college students now report be that the increased intellectual demands of the colleges, particularly in the sciences, are not really matched by an increased intellectual ability?

Have you asked just what do SAT scores measure? Are they really adequate measures of the educability of your students? Have you, as a guidance counselor, too readily equated a person's SAT scores with his intellectual potential and thereby ignored, in your recommendations, his capacities to make realistic and sound judgments, to imagine, to reflect, to analyze and synthesize large amounts of information, to think divergently and intuitively? Do you, as educators, help your students and teachers put the SAT scores in perspective, to understand that while useful for some purposes, their predictive power is limited, that even in the most selective colleges like Haverford where the total SAT average is about 1400, students grad-

uate with honors whose SAT average may be less than eleven hundred and that those with averages of 1500 do flunk out. In other words, have you become prisoners of the SAT panic mentality and thereby not educated your own school about the complex determinants that define educability? Have you sought to educate college admissions people that to select primarily on the basis of SAT scores and class rank is to grossly limit the type of person the colleges educate?

Second, a person's educability for college work is greatly determined by how skillful he is in educating himself. What are some of the skills that promote educability? Surely, you would agree that the ability to read quickly with insight and comprehension is a central educable skill. As you know, college faculties have greatly increased their reading assignments during the past decade, so that, for example, it is not unusual in the big ten universities for the liberal arts students to have reading assignments ranging between 500 to 750 pages a week. We have students whose verbal SAT scores may be in the 700s who cannot read more than 200 words a minute. How educable are they? In fact, our studies, based on very inadequate data, suggest there has been no increase in either rate or comprehension of reading in our entering freshmen for the past decade. If reading assignments have increased but such basic learning skills have not, what is the result?

As educators, do you know what educable skills your students need for their future and have you systemically assayed their development during their school years? Have you recently checked your college-bound students, for example, for their abilities to outline complex verbal materials, to identify the important from the unimportant, to organize their thoughts sequentially and logically, to plan their study time efficiently, to prepare for and take examinations? If you do assay the educable skills of your students at different points in their school career, do you then help your teachers to work with those who are not showing much growth or with those who are falling behind their own previous growth rate? Do you keep your teachers alert to the types of educational skills they should be ceaselessly developing? Do you, as experts in the learning process, provide them with materials, suggestions, and assistance to help students develop such skills? Do you tend to ignore the educable skills of your A students on the assumption that their achievement means that have highly developed skills? If so, you are doing a serious disservice to your more gifted students who have perhaps not been challenged by their school work and never had to learn how to concentrate and work and develop efficient patterns of learning.

Third, a person's educability for college work is influenced by his expectations of the type of program for which he is best suited. Several decades ago about a third of our entering freshmen expected to major in the natural-engineering sciences, a third in the social sciences, and a third in the humanities and arts. And two years later, about a third of the class did major in each academic division. In the sixties, however, about 45% of the entering students intended to major in the sciences and yet, two years later, only 22% actually did. About one fifth of the entering freshmen have made a major vocational switch since their matriculation which is almost invariably accompanied by much personal disorganization, loss of academic motivation, and despair that tends to reduce their educability.

Are we witnessing the effects of inadequate guidance in the secondary schools? Have you as educators been seduced by the cultural over-valuation of science and technology, the national post-Sputnik space craze, the Westinghouse Talent and other searches to encourage students to carve an identity around being a research scientist at the expense of their own basic talents and needs? Do you tend to encourage your students to make too premature vocational decisions, so that they enter college already too

preformed and too directed to allow themselves to be open to the full range of opportunities a college provides? Do you as educators take steps to reduce teacher or parent pressures to make too early decisions, to pressure students into advanced placement courses that may channel interests too prematurely? Are you constantly alert to the immaturing emotional and social consequences, for example, of too intense dedication by some youngsters to specialized intellectual interests and hobbies? Do you watch the desocializing effects the introduction of a computer has for young people who become compulsively fascinated by it. How many of the 44,000 different vocational possibilities really influence your advice to students? Or do you have unconscious biases that favor certain types of occupations and not others and so limit the effective choices of your students?

Fourth, and most importantly, a person's educability is affected by many personality factors, particularly by his maturity, by the way he expresses his impulses and needs, by his ideas about himself and his values, and by his social-emotional relationships with others. Because these trends are inter-related, I postpone examining their consequences for the educability of contemporary students until I present the data.

Are contemporary freshmen more "sick," disturbed, upset or maladjusted than we were several decades ago, as some

psychiatrists have asserted? Several thousand years ago, Aristotle complained similarly about the fractiousness and rebelliousness of Athenian youth. Perhaps it is a sign of being an adult that one believes those who are not yet of age are sicker or more immature than he was when young. But the data do not support the observation that today's students are in any classical meaning of the term more pathologically disturbed than we were. However, the data do suggest that in the past several decades an increasingly number of young persons do report they feel under much greater stress and strain. Increasing freshmen report, for example, they do not wake up in the morning fully rested and that their hardest battles are with themselves.

What are the principal reactions to this feeling of being under the stress that probably comes from trying to meet higher social and educational expectations of the kind of person they are to become?

One prominent and increasing trend is for the entering freshmen to be much more inhibited and over-controlled than we were at his age. Contemporary students are much more intellectually efficient, serious, and conscientious. They express this change in their word "cool." The current generation plays life cooly; to "blow your cool" is to lose status. At all times you must appear to be in control of

your own feelings, even in those thrill situations you seek out in which to test how well you can keep your cool.

What are the psychological consequences of inhibiting your emotional reactions, to always cool life down? We as humans are not built to play it cool. We are built to express feelings directly and immediately. We have facial muscles with which to express emotion; we have tear glands with which to cry; we have large muscles with which to work and play; we have vocal chords with which to yell and to sing. Man is built to be active, to reduce tension, to express feelings. But to play it cool is to become more detached from one's feelings and moods, to distrust spontaneity, to reject tenderness, affection, sentiment, weakness, serious involvement. Have you, as I, seen that shadow of sophisticated cynicism that begins to cover the faces of seventh graders and that produces an expressionless and vacuous mask in your tenth graders?

The cool generation increasingly expresses its tensions and wishes through dreaming and fantasy. In the past two decades, increasing numbers of young persons report they dream, that they dream repetitively, that they dream about sex. More report they wish to do something shocking, to destroy property. There has been an increase in the number who dislike exciting crowds, informal group singing and

dramatics. Coolness produces inner emptiness, emotional bankruptcy, and boredom.

A second trend that is emerging is that more young people today are becoming more self-centered or narcissistic. This trend is manifested in several interesting but related ways. Increasingly, entering freshmen overvalue the role of the intellect, their own intellectualism and power. Immediately after World War II, 25% of the entering freshmen but now 45% believe they are important persons; 45% then and 60% now believe they could work great benefit to the world if only those over thirty would allow them to do so; 20% then and now 40% of seventeen year olds think they know more than experts. Young persons spurred by the New Left, desire academic power, believe they should organize the university, and are more competent than most faculty to make academic decisions. Those of us over thirty have reinforced such attitudes by over-valuing the talents of young persons and by emphasizing our own failure to create a more beautiful and peaceful world. Yet, I doubt contemporary young people will be able to create a much better world than we have when they are in power.

The increased value placed on the intellect is also reflected in the increased interest on the part of young

people for intellectual, scholarly, and research careers. Our students no longer go into medicine to practice medicine; they enter medicine to do medical research or teach.

Associated with this increased intellectualization is an increased value on living an aesthetic way of life. Beauty, as the hippies so clearly tell us, is the criterion of value and truth for many contemporary young people. It is not that an aesthetic way of life necessarily means young people are more creative or constructively artistic; rather, it represents in the seventeen year old a redirection of energy onto his own bodily sensations to produce an emotional self-sufficiency. Much of the fascination with pot and LSD finds its psychological support in this turning of energy inward onto the body and to its private pleasures and sensations.

Such changes are compensated for by a marked and widely reported decline of interest on the part of young people in entrepreneurial, practical, pragmatic, economic or business activities. The decline of interest in college graduates in business has been so marked that corporation executives have become anxious about their image to the young person. But even more interesting has been the decline of interest in conventional religious beliefs and practices and, particularly, in any devotional way of

life. Young persons increasingly distrust committing themselves to some cause, some ideal, some transcendant belief. They are sceptical of any person who loses his cool for some cause, who is too enthusiastic about any ideal. It just is not true, if we are to believe all the surveys, that any considerable number of young people are involved in civil rights service, or other-centered types of programs. Even the Vietnam demonstrations are motivated by quite complex motives, some of which are frankly self-serving.

The energy of young people is going inwards - manifested most clearly in the hippie - and resulting in a growing privatism that emphasizes the value of their head and their own bodily pleasures. They shy from committing their energies outwardly into practical economic activities or into any devotional way of life in which they might lose themselves.

The growing coolness and privatism of many young people raises the question, "What about the quality of their emotional and social relationships with others?" It is at this point that I become most concerned, for the evidence is quite clear that there is an increasing number of young persons who have never experienced close affectional ties or loyalties to other persons. Increasing numbers feel

themselves to be more isolated, alienated, uninterested in participating in group or other-centered activities. Contemporary freshmen are not hung up as much on sex, their parents, or their academic work. Their greatest preoccupation is loneliness. Sexualization of their inter-personal relationships is one way to overcome such loneliness but intimacy, as all of us are aware, cannot be equated with sexuality. To give you a flavor of the type of changes that have been occurring in the past two decades, I will read some questions and the percentage of true replies of every fourth class of entering freshmen since the end of World War II. The changes are small but note how progressive and consistent they are.

When I was a child I didn't care to get into a crowd of lively friends	33, 35, 35, 38, 39, 47
I could be happy living all alone in a cabin in the woods or mountains	23, 28, 31, 38, 33, 45
My worries seem to disappear when I get into a crowd of lively friends	71, 69, 73, 68, 58, 55

If I had time I could read similar results in which increasing numbers of seventeen year olds report that if they were in a gang that got into trouble, they would give the others away rather than take the full blame on themselves. Apart

from the ethics of the situation, their replies suggest something about the intensity of their emotional ties to their peers. Increasing numbers of students say they are not good mixers. And in so far as the desire to sing and act represent needs to communicate emotionally to others, the increasing number of young persons who say they don't care for such activities is but another manifestation of a growing social and emotional alientation from other persons. No wonder the young are so preoccupied about communication. Thirty percent of several successive classes of graduating college seniors spontaneously mentioned in interviews that what they regretted most in their college experience was that they had not formed any close friendships. Studies at Stanford reveal that about one third of the men and one fourth of the women had never dated once in college.

If it is true that there is an increasing number of young persons - perhaps still not a majority - who are more inhibited and cool, who are more intellectually self-centered and self-sufficient, and who have not experienced close emotional friendships with others, then what are the implications of such trends for educators?

I believe there is a fundamental psychological principle that when understood in connection with these trends and the current student restlessness in the colleges and secondary

schools helps to explain why current students may not be as educable as we would expect. The principle is that excessive development in one sector of the personality induces resistances to further development in that sector until maturing occurs in the neglected areas of the personality. More specifically, too great intellectual development and emphasis in the secondary school tends to develop temporary resistances to such development in college until comparable emotional and social maturation have occurred. Then the individual is freed to develop more intellectually. I suggest that much of the current discontent and restlessness of students at the high-pressure and selective colleges and universities as well as the exaggerated compensatory reaction of the hippies can be understood as very strong reactions to their own cool, their own over-developed intellectualism and vanity, and to their own social ineptness and loneliness.

Let me now return to my suggestion that is the changing psychological demands of the colleges and universities themselves that may be getting in our way to help students become more educable. There is little doubt - for it is now well documented - that colleges and universities have been demanding much more intellectually of their students than formerly. Even Time magazine has a special article on those professors around the country still known for teaching gut

courses - as if this were a singular piece of unexpected news. I suggest that the better colleges and universities have abandoned the traditional liberal education goal of developing human excellence, of furthering the maturing of the individual student, to embrace a much more limited goal - namely, the development of more specialized, professionally oriented intellectuals for whom research and scholarly activities are the path to personal happiness. Nevitt Sanford has titled his recent book, Why Colleges Fail for very good reason. They fail, so he says, because they have betrayed their liberal education tradition.

What have been the consequences of this more restricted educational goal? The entering freshman, particularly from the better secondary and private schools, frequently feels himself to be stretched out of shape. He has suppressed his emotional and social needs, played it cool, worked hard, achieved high SAT scores and an enviable grade record. He arrives at the university with high expectations of leading a fuller life. He discovers he is now saddled with more of the same types of demands. He absorbs the current value that he should go on to graduate or professional school even though he doesn't know in what field; he discovers that college requires even more work than his secondary school did, that to do well he must work harder, suppress his emotional needs, and try to maintain some

minimal average under more difficult competitive conditions. Academic work is essentially isolating and nonsocial and he is pulled even further away from others. Since these demands only stretch him further out of shape, he begins to question the value of academic work. Some develop resistance to the academicism of college; others complain about its irrelevance - and it is irrelevant to their real needs - and begin to drop out. The students have become less educable for the same intellectual diet; they even develop their own free universities that speak more to their current needs, for they are more educable for other types of experience than those the traditional college provides. In Rollo May's words, they have an ontological hunger for personal and devotional-involving experiences but are too inhibited to seek them out. One of our graduating seniors, chosen by his classmates to speak for them to the entire college community, expressed much of what I have been saying this way. He knew nothing of my results.

> "And we're distanced from people. Quite often, I think,projects like joining the peace corps, or working with slum kids are attempts to bridge a gap. Not just a sociological gap, but a gap of the heart. Because these people seem to operate on a more fundamental level than we do. Somehow

their actions are more spontaneous and less embalmed by reflection. We worry about relating to people; but, for better or worse, they relate. There is a naturalness - often crude, but a naturalness nonetheless - about them. And too often it is obscured in us. And if this is the burden of the intellectual - if his cross is always to be separated from other men, almost as an observer - then I say he is not an intellectual at all. He is an academician. But nothing more. Because there is something precious in the unenlightened man; something valuable in his ignorance. And that something - hard to define but recognizable, I think, by feeling - is his unsophisticated, unreflected upon vulnerability to emotion. His ability to forget himself."

I believe we are now reaping the consequences of a change in our national educational goals that has occurred in our country in the past decade. We have abandoned the goal of every major educational philosopher since Socrates as well as the goal most appropriate for a democracy. We no longer strive to develop human excellence - we strive to develop only intellectual excellence. I suggest the concentration of our country's resources on intellectual, particularly scientific

and technological to the exclusion of humanistic, development may be making many students less educable for further intellectual growth. Educational decisions are no longer being made within the context of their potential consequences for the educability and maturity of students.

I want to cite but one example of the type of myopic educational planning that may be accentuating the types of trends I have described. The Conant proposal that we consolidate our high schools into two to three thousand students in order to provide better educational facilities more economically has prepared the way for the proposal that we now develop educational parks for ten to twenty thousand children ostensibly to help solve the educational problems of the disadvantaged child. Educators have been more concerned to ask how can we manage the bus traffic for such parks than to ask what will be the effects on the children of being in such devastatingly huge and anonymous circuses - for surely putting ten thousand children together in close contact with each other is to heighten confusion, noise and excitability - even just a little. Why have no educators asked questions like these: "What will be the effects of such schools on the child's sense of belongingness, self-concept as an individual, and relationships with other children? What is the effect on a youngster of fragmenting his relationships with other

children, so that he never works with those with whom he plays or with whom he lives or with whom he eats? How are such schools to develop a sense of stability and integration in one's personal relationships?" Youngsters deprived of a settled, harmonious, calm, and closely adult supervised and personal life - as many ghetto children are so deprived - need small continuing and very personal groups in which to learn - not the disruptive and over-stimulative chaos of thousands of bewildered children. Educators don't ask these questions because they fail to view the educational process in other than intellectual terms. Every educational decision should be considered within the context of its potential consequences for the development of the educability and maturity of a child. I don't want to be misunderstood at this point. I don't denigrate the development of intellectual excellence. In fact, I strongly believe educators must hold children to as high intellectual standards as is consonant with their maturing as a full person. But intellectual excellence is only one goal of the educator, the full realization of which depends upon the maturing of all of the person as a person. Of one thing I feel quite confident: large schools at best are probably irrelevant to intellectual excellence; at their worst, they may seriously limit educability.

If our goal as educators is to further the educability of our students, their maturing as fuller human beings, than we must ask several questions.

First, what do such terms like "educability" and "maturity" mean? Certainly, intellectual achievement has been such a persuasive goal because, in part, it is readily identifiable and at least measurable. Dewey suggested that if educators wished to propose "what education should be" they should try to discover "what actually takes place when education really occurs." I don't have the time to describe the results of my own studies of the educational process except to say that I feel we are approaching the time when psychologists will be able to provide a model of the developmental process that will define more precisely the elusive goal of human excellence and maturity.

Second, if students are less educable due to the types of trends I have identified, what has caused such trends and how can they be corrected? To explore some hypotheses about the reasons for such trends would be the subject for another talk, for surely they must be the product of a large number of cultural, social, familial as well as educational forces. To provoke you to form your own hypotheses, let me ask one question? What has been the effect of television on the development of the cool philosophy and the quality of

our children's interpersonal relationships? The average child supposedly spends more time watching television than going to school. Educators know how hard they must work to stimulate the interest of their students. What does TV do to capture and hold a child's attention for so many thousands of hours? It reaches into the unconventional, it is propelled into franker and franker portrayals of sex and sadism. Studies suggest the sight of aggression induces aggressive responses, but a child, particularly a middle class child, is punished if he acts out such aggression. So he must learn to inhibit aggression. He comes to adapt his control to more and more intense scenes of violence; he learns to suspend his feelings, to cool them down, and by generalization, other related feelings as well. Or what is the effect of spending some ten thousand or more hours of your life when you are most open to growth in a passive and dependent spectator type of activity? Those hours must rob you of time for other types of growth experiences, like dreaming, developing hobbies, or, and much more importantly, like playing outdoors with groups of children and developing social skills and interests. Do we as educators really help our children to become more educable by relying too heavily on television or teaching ma - chines as educational techniques? Should we not seek instead to develop educational means that more fully engage our students in active productive participatory types of activity

that include cooperative social learning experiences?

Finally, who is the person who should be asking such questions? Who is the person best equipped to assess the educability of the students, to examine the total context of forces that may be affecting their educability, to suggest alternative structural educational arrangements? Not the teachers, particularly those in secondary school and college who see the student in too limited a context; not the principal, who is too preoccupied with administrative problems to become that deeply involved in the life of the child. The guidance counselor? Perhaps, if his vision and skills were greatly expanded.

Let me close by asking you some questions? Do you honestly think of yourselves as educators? Do you define your goal to promote the educability of your students? If so, then do you think of yourselves as persons who are supportive, remedial, and advisory to students? If so, then I say your vision of how effective you could be is too limited. Should you not be counselors to the school-community - the principal, teachers, parents, and children- rather than be counselors only to children? Why aren't you more effective as a school-community diagnostician? Do you really think you can be most effective by working with six or seven individual children during the day? Or

could you not be even more effective if you used your expert assessment skills for diagnosing the developmental educability of all your students, identifying the educational and communal structures and activities that hindered the development of educability, and suggesting changes to facilitate the educability of your students? For example, have you carefully analyzed the effects of independent study and project work in your school? Does it encourage privatism? Could you not suggest that all independent project work be cooperatively done by several students who would be forced to learn how to work together, understand each other's viewpoints, and eventually, learn to respect and like each other? Have you examined the effects of your tightly scheduled classes on student development? I find most students can't concentrate for more than forty minutes without becoming restless. Is this due to the forty minute class period? Has your school only internalized into its own program the compulsive frantic scheduled activity of the community? Do you provide only 23 minutes for lunch and so teach your children how not to use leisure constructively? Have you questioned the wisdom of expanding the size of your schools and examined the effects of such expansion on both formal and informal social group experiences? Have you thought about how the latter

half of the senior year could be radically reformed to be a better test of how educable your seniors are for college and then within the security of a known situation helped them to become more educable for college? These and other questions about the structure and environment of the school and community and their effects on the educability of your students are your responsibility to ask - do you ask them? Do you help solve them?

DECISION-MAKING BEHAVIOR:
IMPLICATIONS FOR VOCATIONAL COUNSELING

Victor H. Appel and Ruth A. Haak

The counselor's task in short term counseling focuses primarily on aiding a client deal with some situational problem with which he is concerned. Frequently, that problem requires that some choice be made from various alternative courses of action; that is, that some decision be reached. It may be a decision having to do with whether one should or should not go to college, marry Phillip, major in economics, or take geometry this semester or next. Despite our everyday involvement with such questions, much remains to be learned about the basic processes by which individuals make choices. The processes through which counselors contribute to client decision-making are even more complex.

During the past decade, there has been a tremendous mushrooming of research in the area of decision-making process, or what is sometimes called choice behavior (Estes, 1961; Haak, 1966). While theory and empirical results in

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this area are far from conclusive at this point, it would seem that knowledge gained in this field might be beneficial to counselors in understanding decision-making in vocational counseling. Perhaps more effective models of counseling intervention might derive from a review of selected laboratory results on choice behavior. At the very least, the literature on choice behavior should provide a stimulus for a more tentative and questioning orientation with respect to current vocational counseling practice.

To illustrate the possible ways in which research on decision-making might be used, six counseling propositions will be presented and compared with counseling implications of relevant empirical studies of decision-making. The points of similarity and difference will be examined and some implications will be considered.

Counseling Proposition I: Clients vary in the degree to which they desire to assume responsibility or initiative for making a vocational decision.

Suggestive Empirical Evidence: There is considerable support for this proposition. Personality variables, in this case, the personality characteristics of a client, affect in significant ways the manner in which a decision is reached. For example, persons with low self-esteem seem to be severely limited in the degree of responsibility they assume in decision-making. They tend to prefer leaving an imminent decision to

fate or chance (Baumgold, Termerlin, Ragland, 1965; Bortner, 1964; Briggs, 1961). Personal influence, as for example, the personal influence of the counselor, seems to have a greater effect upon less rational than upon more rational individuals (Rogers and Beal, 1958). In a similar vein, introverts seem to be more susceptible than others to the influence of external crises. Interestingly, decisions made to cope with such crises are apt to be abandoned by introverts when the crises pass (Kiesler, 1964).

The extent to which one is amenable to considering a differing course of action, based on newly acquired information depends on one's degree of rationality (Dean, Arbuch and March, 1958). The more rational individual seems more able to consider new alternatives. In general, highly anxious persons are less able to process information, are more susceptible to personal influence, and are more restricted to habitual modes of behavior (Farber, 1954).

One might expect that the autonomous individual would be an effective decision-maker. Strangely, there is very little experimentation to support or refute this hypothesis. Self-confidence, another possible positive characteristic of the effective decision-maker, was not found to be a good predictor (Andrews and Boldt, 1965). It is possible, however, that this result was biased by its reliance on self-report.

In summary, there is much more known about personality characteristics which seem to impede successful decision-making than of personality dimensions associated with the effective decision-maker.

Counseling Proposition II: The best vocational decisions are based upon the maximum available pertinent information.

Suggestive Empirical Evidence: This proposition is not supported. There is variation as to how much information is optimal for a particular individual; and, in general, there appears to be no simple relationship between the amount of information provided and the soundness of a decision. In fact, it appears that some kind of curvilinear relationship exists (Schroeder, Streufert and Driver, 1963) except when a linear relationship appear (Driscoll and Lanzetta, 1964). However, with more extreme amounts of information, "overload" may occur (Leventhal and Singer, 1964; Mackworth and Mackworth, 1958) resulting in distortion or disregard of some information.

The quality of information also appears to be a significant consideration. As might be expected, clarity of presentation of information is highly important if the material is to be effectively utilized (Morin and Forrin, 1965). This finding has particular applicability to the meaningfulness

with which test scores are interpreted. In addition, consideration of both sides of an issue appears to facilitate decision-making more than considerations of only one side (Kiesler, 1964).

Counseling Proposition III: To result in optimal satisfaction, vocational decisions ought not be forced at an arbitrary point in time, but rather ought to depend on the readiness of the client.

Suggestive Empirical Evidence: Available evidence tends to support this counseling proposition strongly. If choices have to be made while the individual still has a high degree of uncertainty about the matter, it may be expected that he will remain dissonant or disturbed by his decision long after it has been made (Brody, 1961). The wide prevalence of this finding has given rise to a new area of decision-making now being investigated. The area is termed post decision dissonance (Brehm and Cohen, 1962).

Perhaps the most important implication for counseling practice from the findings on post decision dissonance is that counselors should expect that the decision process does not necessarily end at the point of commitment and implementation of a vocational decision.

It is also apparent that in the educational setting, as in other life settings, forced choice does occur. It is not

always possible to postpone a decision until one is ready to make it. However, within the limits available, counselors need to be concerned with educational policies, such as those which set a fixed time for declaration of major, program or area of concentration. As a minimum, counselors should be alert whether such a policy is creating unnecessary post decisional dissonance and dissatisfaction.

Another line of investigation offers an additional reason against precipitating premature vocational decisions. There is evidence to suggest that it is more difficult to change a decision once it has been made, than to make it initially (Gibson and Nicol, 1964; Pruitt, 1961). Thus, students who make decisions in the face of considerable uncertainty will find them difficult to reverse even though they have good cause.

Counseling Proposition IV: Selecting an appropriate vocation requires matching an individual's attributes with the requirements of the occupation(s) in which he is interested.

Suggestive Empirical Evidence: This proposition is only partially supported. Although uncertainty as to the nature of the situation and uncertainty as to one's probable response to the situation both contribute to one's total feeling of uncertainty, the former contributes substantially more to one's uncertainty than does the latter (Driscoll, 1964).

Thus, deciding whether to become an engineer may be much more dependent upon the degree of understanding one has to the nature of engineering (stimulus uncertainty) than upon an analysis of one's likely responses as an engineer (response uncertainty). This does not necessarily imply that knowledge of one's self is unimportant. Rather, it may mean that a person generally can be expected to have appreciably more understanding of himself than of a novel situation. It may be that even in situations that are highly foreign to his prior experience, when a person is given a clear description of a setting, he will be able to project himself into it and subjectively appraise if it "feels right." If true, the immediate implication for the counselor would be that his efforts should be directed primarily toward aiding his client minimize the stimulus uncertainty rather than his response uncertainty. The far-reaching ramifications of these speculations would suggest an area well worth both experimental testing and exploration by individual counselors in their everyday practice.

Counseling Proposition V: Vocational choices can best be arrived at by a narrowing down process. Persons who have narrowed their vocational choice down to two possibilities should be able to arrive at an ultimate choice easier and sooner than a person who has a greater number of alternatives to consider.

Suggestive Empirical Evidence: This proposition is not supported. Although the number of alternatives appears to be a definite factor in influencing the ease with which a decision can be made, there is substantial basis for expecting that selecting one best choice from among three of four alternatives will be less difficult or time consuming than choosing between two (Kiesler, 1964; Leonard, 1958; Tversky, 1964). It is also true, however, that more than four choices also tend to decrease efficiency of choice (Hayes, 1962). Thus, it would appear that providing three or four possibilities is optimal for enabling a client to select his final choice.

Counseling Proposition VI: A person's consideration of a vocation is likely to be influenced by both the anticipated rewards that it may offer and the likelihood of attaining that objective.

Suggestive Empirical Evidence: This proposition is only partially supported. While both of the factors mentioned do seem to influence choice, the evidences suggest that the likelihood of obtaining a goal is appreciably more important as a factor in choice-making behavior to most persons than the magnitude of the anticipated rewards if the goal is realized (Luce and Shipley, 1962; Myers and Suybam, 1964; and Pryron, 1964). In these studies when persons were placed in experimental situations where they were permitted to increase

either the probability of reward or the amount of reward, the former was strongly preferred. Applied to the counselor's situation, it would seem to point to the likelihood that clients would more frequently prefer "safe" vocational goals to more "risky" objectives having greater payoff, monetarily or otherwise. This choice preference might seem unwise to the counselor whose own value orientation predisposed him to be more adventuresome.

It must be emphasized that the empirical findings referred to here are not necessarily conclusive. More importantly, their applicability to vocational counseling as opposed to laboratory situations, remains essentially untested. These findings have been presented here as a stimulus for re-examination of present counseling practice and theory, and as an illustration of the ways in which a relatively untapped resource can be harnessed to contribute to innovations in vocational counseling in the future.

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INNOVATIONS IN COUNSELING TEACHERS

Frances F. Fuller

Oliver H. Bown

If counselors must make a choice between providing counseling for students or teachers, they should opt for teachers. This, oversimplified and overgeneralized, is one conclusion of ten years of research at the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education at The University of Texas at Austin.

Counseling with teachers should be given priority over counseling with students since teachers' opportunities for impact on others are greater in fact than counselors' opportunities.

Teachers have the power to change situations, real-life situations. They mete out important rewards, rewards which have impact on families, on the future, on the most intimate and enduring experiencing of students. Teachers work with people, at a time when they are most likely to change. Teachers

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have an understanding as well as a control of resources within the classroom which can be used to facilitate change. A counselor may know that a child needs a secure world, but it is the teacher who is most capable of helping him experience it. For example, the teacher may help such a child to observe the regularities of science, of color mixing, of many other consistencies in nature and may help him relate these consistencies to trust and dependability.

At the same time, teachers need help to take advantage of their opportunities. Teachers' tasks are extremely complex psychologically. Further, they work in a highly charged, emotional climate where stress is the norm rather than the exception. Teachers are at the focus of pressure from parents, from administrators, from other teachers, from the community, from children, and from within themselves. Most teachers seem unusually sensitive to both criticism and approval thus, the nature of the teacher, of his work and of the classroom situation make continuous help to teachers imperative. The problems are to make help available, acceptable and fruitful.

Counselors can be of considerable help to teachers if they understand that teachers have many concerns in common. Knowing teachers' common concerns enables the counselor to follow that well established teaching maxim, "start where the learner is." New teachers, as well as many experienced ones, are concerned about the power structure of the school, discipline,

how to communicate content, and deviant student behavior. New teachers are concerned about how these factors affect them; their early concerns revolve around themselves, and until their self concerns are resolved, they are unable to become deeply involved with students and the teaching-learning process.

Teachers' concerns seem to occur in a sequence. Their concerns are related to specific teaching tasks which we might call "developmental" teaching tasks. In order to resolve their concerns and accomplish related tasks, teachers seem to need a special kind of understanding both as persons and as professional people. Some ways of communicating this special understanding are described in the publications listed below.

A second problem is related to teachers' openness to help. Teachers obviously need to become open to feedback about their impact on students. But how can they become open? The Research and Development Center's studies indicate that giving teachers "Personalized" feedback about themselves, about their teaching and about their situations caused them to become open to feedback from students in the classroom. They changed personally as indicated by their responses to personality assessment instruments. They seemed to develop more "mature" concerns. They were less self protective than other teachers and more interested in students and their impact as persons on others. In addition, they held more

favorable attitudes toward feedback about themselves.

Publications Available

The work of the Research and Development Center in Teacher Education has been described in several recent publications. Since the work is so recent, no one publication describing all the procedures is yet available, but several partial descriptions may be of interest to counselors who work with teachers. These are:

> Creating Climates for Growth, Frances Fuller, Robert Peck, and Oliver Bown, Hogg Foundation, 1967, 35 pp.

This is a description of the psychological world of the teacher in the classroom taken from hundreds of typescripts of interviews with teachers, from films of classrooms and from counseling sessions in which teachers were given "assessment feedback" either from psychological instruments or from films of their teaching. Available from the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health, The University of Texas at Austin, Austin, Texas, 78712, price 35¢.

> "Intensive Individualization of Teacher Preparation." In the Forty-Sixth Yearbook (1967) of The Association for Student Teaching entitled Mental Health and Teacher Education, pp 151-187.

This chapter describes the concerns of teachers and the developmental tasks related to each concern, in the context of a personalized approach to counseling teachers. Reprints may be obtained from Miss Marjorie Menefee, Research and Develop-

ment Center in Teacher Education, Sutton Hall 303, The University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

> Effects of Increasing Personalization of Teacher Preparation on Teacher Personality and Teaching Behavior: Report of The University of Texas Personality, Teacher Education, and Teaching Behavior Research Project, 1967, 200 pages.

This is a research report including the rationale, procedures and results of systematically applying three types of feedback: assessment feedback (test interpretation and counseling); behavior feedback (showing teachers films of their own teaching); and situation feedback (giving teachers information about their teaching situations). This report includes descriptions of the treatments and sample typescripts of sessions with teachers. This report may be secured by writing Miss Marjorie Menefee, Research and Development Center in Teacher Education, Sutton Hall 303, The University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

> "Influence of Counseling and Film Feedback on Openness to Pupil Feedback in Elementary Teachers' Filmed Behavior," Frances Fuller, Shirley Menaker, Robert Peck and Oliver Bown. Proceedings of the 75th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, 1967, pp. 359-360.

This is a brief research summary of the effects on teaching behavior of the three kinds of psychological feedback described above. Reprints of this article are available from Miss Marjorie Menefee, Research and Development Center in Teacher Education, Sutton Hall 303, The University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

"The Emotional Development of Teachers," Frances Fuller and Oliver Bown. Chapter in Look Toward Tomorrow, Hogg Foundation, 1966.

This is a brief description of some problems teachers face and the kinds of help which can be given them in a church school setting. This booklet is available from the Hogg Foundation for Mental Health, The University of Texas, Austin, Texas, 78712 price 20¢.

Cautions for Counselors

All the publications listed above need to be read in the context of a therapeutic approach to teachers. The procedures described are powerful tools for changing human interactions. Like all such tools they can be used to help, hinder or even harm. For example, a procedure is described for giving teachers feedback about their own behavior by showing them sound films of themselves teaching. Obviously this can be applied with disastrous consequences if an overly self-critical teacher is filmed or audio recorded and then told only what is "wrong" with her teaching. The procedure descriptions assume a therapeutic, growth-facilitating orientation by the reader rather than a hostile or denigrating approach. Counselors who use this film-feedback procedure should see films of themselves counseling and do so frequently enough to maintain awareness of the impact of the experience.

The importance of sharing, of entering into the experience of the teacher and of maintaining a helping orientation cannot be overemphasized. The essence of the procedures is the establishment of a relationship with the teacher as a person first and as a teacher second.

Counselors who, after reading the publications mentioned above, are interested in further information as it becomes available can be placed on the mailing list of the Research and Development Center for Teacher Education. Counselors who wish to receive additional publications may write to Miss Marjorie Menefee at Sutton Hall 303. There is no charge for single copies of Research and Development Center publications.

VIDEO TAPE IN COUNSELING SUPERVISION: THE CONTRIBUTION OF CUE SOURCES TO JUDGMENTS OF EMPATHY

William O. Hall Jr.

Accurate empathy is widely considered to be an essential ingredient in successful therapeutic relationships (Rogers, 1966). Little is known, however, about development of capacity for accurate empathy in counselor trainees. Nor is much known about the effect of supervisory media (i.e., observation by one-way mirror versus television recording) on the supervisor's ability to judge a trainee's empathy for his client. It might be expected that judgments of empathy would be more valid when the counseling relationship is recorded more completely (as with video tape) as opposed to its partial representation via conventional audio tape recordings. However, there is some reason to believe that adding data may produce confusion in clinical judgments (Bartlett, 1966). That is, a partial representation of the counseling relationship may be better for purposes of judging empathy than a more complete representation.

The present study was undertaken to test the following

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hypotheses:

1. Inter-judge agreement of trainee empathy is higher when J's are given both audio and video cues than when they are given audio only or video only.

2. Judgments of empathy differ significantly with the source of cues (audio, video, audio plus video) on which they are based.

METHOD

The plan for this study presented nine segments from a single counseling session under three conditions--video cues, audio cues, audio and video cues. Eighteen judges composed of counselor educators, doctoral students in counseling, and psychiatrists and clinical psychologists participated in the study. The J's were assigned randomly to three groups of six each. Each group of J's rated the empathy of the counselor during each segment under one of three conditions--viewing, hearing, and both seeing and hearing. The manner of presentation was systematically varied from segment to segment. The refined Accurate Empathy Scale developed by Truax (Rogers, 1967) was used to rate the extent of this empathic communication.

RESULTS

In order to determine inter-judge agreement, Ebel's (Guilford, 1964) method of analysis was used. As shown in Table 1, all groups of J's were able to achieve consensus on segments 1, 4, and 7.

TABLE 1

Reliability of the Ratings for Empathy

Judges	Segments	Cues	r_{kk}	p
Group 1	1, 4, 7	A&V	.94	.05
	2, 5, 8	A	.07	N.S.
	3, 6, 9	V	.04	N.S.
Group 2	2, 5, 8	A&V	.00	N.S.
	3, 6, 9	A	.14	N.S.
	1, 4, 7	V	.75	.05
Group 3	3, 6, 9	A&V	.68	.05
	1, 4, 7	A	.66	.05
	2, 5, 8	V	.84	.05

It appears that segments 1, 4, and 7, were easier to rate on the Accurate Empathy Scale than the other groups of segments. Group 3, in terms of the reliability of its judgments, appears to have been generally superior to the other two groups in its ability to judge empathy. These factors apparently confound the effects of cue sources and, therefore, limit the possibilities for testing hypothesis one.

Considering only segments 1, 4, and 7, the only segments for which J's were able to achieve a singificant degree of consensus, the reliability coefficient for audio and visual cues was significantly different from reliability coefficients for video cues (Group 2) and audio cues (Group 3) at the $p < .001$ level. This result provides only suggestive support for hy-

pothesis one, especially in view of the fact that the data already reported indicate differences between groups in their ability to judge empathy.

The Latin square design-repeated measure (Winer, 1962) was used to obtain information concerning the differences between empathy ratings due to different cues--thus, making it possible for individual comparison to be made. Analysis of variance of empathy data reveals that the differences between the ratings in the same segment for segments 1, 4, and 7, are significant sources of variance.

Table 2 reports data pertinent to hypothesis two. Mean empathy ratings are shown for various cue sources for segments 1, 4, and 7.

TABLE 2

Mean Empathy Ratings by Source of Cues

Segment	Cue Sources		
	V	A	AV
1	3.83*	1.67	1.67
4	6.17	4.17*	6.33
7	5.50*	1.83*	3.33*

* Significantly different from all other means of that segment, $p < .01$.

As indicated in Table 2, hypothesis two is partially supported for these selected segments of the counseling interview. In addition, it should be noted that empathy was consistently rated higher when ratings were based on video alone or when audio are combined than when judgments were based on audio cues only.

CONCLUSION

It does not appear that empathy can be more reliably judged from a combination of audio and video cue sources than from either source alone. How empathy is rated depends on cue source but it clearly also depends on the segment being observed. Ratings of empathy appear to be higher when video cues are added to audio or in combination with audio. Thus, it does appear that video contributes something unique to supervisory judgments. From the data of this study, it seems that visual contact with the happenings of counseling causes supervisors to be more favorable in their assessments of trainees. Possibly they were more positive because empathic qualities were evident in the video data which were not being communicated verbally by the supervisee. It is also possible that visual stimuli tend to confound the judge, to make him less sure of himself and his judgments, and, therefore, to be less critical.

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THE ALCOHOLIC PARENT--A FACTOR IN STUDENT COUNSELING: A PRELIMINARY REPORT

Jane Vincent

In spite of the great confusion and anxiety they experience, the children of alcoholics can learn to be effective as agents for change in the family context, and they can create self-healing environments. (Blum and Blum, p. 25) "Relieving the distress of the patient and those with whom he lives is the basic concern of treatment. Since the treatment of the alcoholic requires intervention from another person or persons, one necessarily focuses on the people who intervene." (Blum and Blum, p. 52) The child of the alcoholic has a sufficiently different relationship with the alcoholic from the spouse or community agents that he can intervene in a significant manner. In order to effect a successful intervention, however, the student must still be able to care for his parent, to interact with him with genuine concern. The behavioral symptoms of the ala-student* render him ineffective until

*The term, Ala-students, was used by the students in this study to refer to themselves. None were members of Ala-teens, an organization sponsored by Alcoholics Anonymous.

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perhaps a counselor becomes the change-agent and effects attitudinal alterations in the ala-student, making it possible for him to be of assistance to his family. A word of caution is appropriate here. While it is possible for a student to effect change in the family setting, he is not inevitably able to do so. He is neither responsible for the family situation nor is he responsible for solving it; he assumes the role of intervener by choice.

This study is a preliminary report based upon the results of an intensive counseling project with fourteen subjects (5 males and 9 females) obtained after they identified themselves as students with an alcoholic parent. These students were divided into three groups which met for one and one-half hours weekly. Nine of the students were also seen in individual counseling interviews periodically during the semester.

All interviews were taped and students were asked to complete a questionnaire. Data reported herein was compiled from this material.

SYMPTOMS OF THE ALA-STUDENT

The child of the alcoholic is not only the step-child of research but also of the counselor. Newell's (1950) hypotheses about the emotional adjustment of the children of alcoholics have been largely overlooked by those collecting

empirical data on alcoholism and the implications of his work have gone unrecognized by counselors. Newell suggested that children of alcoholics live in an environment characterized by prolonged stress and frustration; he noted that when laboratory animals were exposed to prolonged intense frustration, convulsions and/or emotional deterioration resulted. Students with alcoholic parents must exist in an environment characterized by crisis of an inter-related, intense, and lasting nature, an environment which makes it impossible for a student to have his normal needs for love and affection fulfilled. These students are especially in need of counseling (Glanz, 1962); there is little indication that much is being done to identify them or to provide them with needed help.

A significant factor in the success of counseling is the readiness of the client for counseling. By reason of the situational stresses they are under, students with alcoholic parents are nearly always ready for counseling. The symptoms they manifest resulting as they do from situational anxiety, yield readily to supporting counseling.

Ala-students as adolescents are faced with the developmental tasks normal for their age level. These tasks are difficult to achieve under the best of family circumstances. An alcoholic parent sometimes makes them impossible to attain. Some indications of the effects of life with an alcoholic

parent are reflected in feelings typically expressed by the fourteen ala-students who participated in this clinical study. These data which were compiled from taped individual and group sessions and questionnaire responses, are reported in Table 1.

TABLE 1

Most Common Feeling Symptoms Expressed by Ala-Students

Symptom	Males		Females	
	N=5	%	N=9	%
Shame	5	100	9	100
Confusion	5	100	9	100
Hostility	5	100	9	100
Fear	5	100	9	100
Embarrassment	5	100	9	100
Rejection	5	100	9	100
Isolation	5	100	9	100
Depression	5	100	9	100
Guilt	4	80	7	78
Resentment	5	100	7	78
Self Condemnation	4	80	8	89
Discouragement	5	100	9	100
Low Self Esteem	4	80	7	78

Note: Compiled from tape recorded interviews and questionnaire responses.

These students also reported experiencing periodic psychosomatic disturbances. (Table 2)

TABLE 2

Psychosomatic Disturbances Reported by Ala-Students

Symptom	Males		Females	
	N=5	%	N=9	%
Fatigue	3	60	7	78
Hives	1	20	3	34
Voice Tremors	1	20	1	11
Headaches	3	60	7	78
Sweating	2	40	1	11
Nervous Stomach	3	60	8	89
Heart Palpitations	2	40	3	34
Sleeplessness	4	80	8	89

Note: Compiled from tape recorded interviews and questionnaires.

We are speaking here of the child of the alcoholic, whose symptoms curiously resemble those of his alcoholic parent. Both MacKay (1961) and Wattenburg (1956) report that students referred to an alcoholism clinic for treatment shared the characteristics of problems with the law, excessive drinking, alcoholic parents, and emotionally deprived home environments. It would seem that the alcoholic parent is generating

in his children the same feelings of deep-seated insecurity and anxiety which he himself experiences. Unless the child learns to cope with these feelings in some way besides drinking, he too may become an alcoholic.

While all of these feeling symptoms are not present in every student, nor all of them at any one time, still 8 of the 14 students have manifested neurotic behavior symptoms resembling those of their parents which seriously interfered with their general functioning outside as well as in the home.

Due to the nature of alcoholism, inadequate communication exists in the home and poor parental models are often provided by both parents. All of these students felt that there was inadequate communication in their family and 8 of them (57%) felt that their alcoholic parent had provided a poor model for sex-role performance and sexual identity.

Ala-students shared four behavior patterns which were identifiable. (Table 3)

TABLE 3

Behavior Patterns of Ala-Students

Behavior	Males		Females	
	N=5	%	N=9	%
Withdrawal	4	80	7	78
Inept Social Skills	4	80	6	67

Table 2 (Continued)

Behavior	Males		Females	
	N=5	%	N=9	%
Lying	4	80	6	67
Drinking	3	60	4	56
Sexual Acting-Out	3	60	4	56

The children of alcoholics always express their disgust with the subterfuges of the alcoholic parent in attempting to hide alcohol all over the house, under beds, between mattresses, in light fixtures, in water bottles or steam irons, in water closets on toilets, in flower pots, and in walking canes. They express fiendish delight in discovering such hiding places and exposing them, along with shaming the parent. Betty says:

> "And all of these commercially-made disguises just increase the problem and protect the alcoholic. My Dad has a false bottom in his golf bag which I just discovered."

At the same time, the same students will express great concern over the impending death of a parent due to drinking and guilt over occasional death-wishes expressed toward the parent either overtly or in dreams. Children see this both as personal concern for the parent and as an economic injustice for the family. Eleven students (79%) expressed economic concerns when the parent could not or did not go to work for fear it would create an economic hardship for the

family. Several of the students stated that it was unfair of the father to drink himself to death and leave them without an income!

Children are concerned about their inability to stop hurting their parents by their critical remarks and rejecting behavior.

> "But I just can't stop it," says Dick. "He makes me so mad I'm going to move out the first chance I get, and then we'll both be better off. But then Jan would be home alone with mother and dad. And mother isn't operative half the time and Jan has to do all the cooking and keeping house for dad. I hate to leave her with that mess."

The alcoholic parent has dependency needs which are fulfilled by their children. Dick's comments illustrate the role reversal that occurs in alcoholic families which fosters incest situations with children of the opposite sex. Alcoholic fathers frequently make sexual advances to their daughters and confused dependent mothers attempt to seduce their sons. Sometimes these advances are abortive but the child bears the burden of the parent's expectations which he cannot fulfill.

Students frequently worry about a sibling left behind at home with the parents in an atmosphere they know is anxiety-producing and sometimes dangerous due to the behavior of the alcoholic or frustrated spouse.

One third of these children feel victimized and therefore rely heavily on rationalization defenses. Almost any behavior is justified. Sometimes, a behavioral outcome of this feeling is exaggeration about parental achievement and income. Some students, like other students with serious parental conflict, will act as though the parent doesn't exist. For example, they will omit his name and address from a background information form and when this is pointed out they will respond with "I forgot" or "I didn't think of it." One said, "I didn't think he---no, I mean 'it'---was important." They will also refuse to discuss their parents and will dwell instead on relatives.

Three (21%) of these students had elaborate prefabricated stories. They told about their 'successful' parent (all fathers) which was a dual protective device for themselves and their parents. One student persisted with this tendency to the point of actually denying reality and was later hospitalized. All of the students of alcoholic mothers saw them as competent, talented people in their vocational activities but unsuccessful in interpersonal relations.

Once a student has adopted acting-out behavior or delinquency patterns as coping mechanisms he has often reached the stage of unreasoning hatred for his parent. When the

student has convinced himself he really doesn't care about helping his parent he is less likely to be effective as a change-agent in the family setting, being unable to respond to his parent with genuine love, warmth and concern. Instead he exhibits the disgust and hatred which stems from his intense feelings of helplessness. This stage is illustrated by Bob's comment:

> "I really hate him. I'm thoroughly disgusted with him. He embarrasses me even in front of mother, to say nothing of the visitors to our home. There was a time when I would have done anything for him, but now I'm totally on Mother's side, and if she doesn't follow through with the divorce I'll make sure she does. I've had it. He's no damn good and there is no point in trying. He's too sick for us to handle. He should be in an institution and there is nothing we can do about it. The roof went right off last night when I suggested this. Mother won't admit she married a flop and as long as she can hide this from everyone she'll do it. Maybe she's sick too. I think she is, personally, as long as she takes what he dishes out....He says we'd be better off without him and he's dead right. Dead? I wish he was dead. That's the only answer at this point. He'll be fired Monday morning and then where will we be?

Bob's comment is extremely insightful as he begins to see the role his mother's behavior may play in his father's alcoholism.

The problems of the alcoholic family stem from the complexities of a society which emphasizes emotional interdependence and support.(Bacon, 1962) The unsatisfactory family relationships trigger escape mechanisms in a personality

pattern probably developed in childhood. Frequently the alcoholic perpetuates the problem by forcing his children into the same mold.

One of the ways the counselor may be able to interrupt this cycle is to provide education and experience in the group counseling setting.

GROUP COUNSELING

Much discussion has arisen over the definition, advantages and disadvantages of the various types of group counseling. For purposes of this report, it is enough to say that the time limitations imposed upon the school counselors make it imperative that they improve their effectiveness by learning and utilizing group techniques. Only in this way can they contact any sizeable number of students and give them the opportunity for much needed personal interaction and attention. This is particularly necessary for the student with an alcoholic parent, especially if he is an only or late child being reared alone.

Group counseling is not easy. These sessions require skilled leaders. "Groups are almost too natural for the unsophisticated user." (Glanz, 1962) The demands upon the group counselor are those impinging on any group leader; such issues as leadership, membership, communication, moti-

vation, power and status operate in a group counseling session just as they do in any group. Yet the counseling nature of the group demands that positive recognition be offered within the group to the counseling issues of personal, emotional, and often intimate concern to students." (Glanz, 1962)

Group sessions are not automatically valuable for students, particularly when their most intimate concerns are under discussion. Group meetings can be damaging when the students are not properly selected, are not able to trust each other, or are not able to treat others' problems with dignity and concern. For example, some students find it necessary to mask their anxieties behind jokes made sometimes at the expense of others. This behavior will destroy the group and/or group morale. If ala-students find it difficult to reveal anything about an alcoholic parent in a one-to-one counseling relationship, they find it even more painful sometimes to expose themselves to their peers. The boys in this sample were particularly sensitive about this and 4 of the 5 (80%) boys responding to the published invitation to come to the Center requested an individual interview. Five of the 9 (56%) girls came directly to the group and spoke more openly than the boys of their family situation. (Three of the 9 girls were already in therapy with the investigator.)

Another sex-based characteristic visible in group functioning concerns the group contributions made by boys and girls. Girls in this sample were more consistent in their attendance, more helpful analytically, or more verbal about their analyses, and more supportive of the others. Girls progressed faster, and more dramatically than the boys in effecting behavior changes in themselves and in their family members.

This may be due to the fact that boys seem to assume more internalized responsibility than do the girls within the alcoholic family. At any rate, the boys were diagnosed as more disturbed proportionately than were the girls. All of this is grist for future research, but the girls herein particularly profited from the group experience. The boys needed it, dreaded it, and avoided it. But they did profit from it, particularly from the support they got from the other students and from relief in knowing that they were not alone with this problem. Four of the 5 boys also requested occasional individual therapy. Perhaps the sexes can be segregated for future groups and some further conclusions could be drawn.

Group activities may include discussion or group therapy techniques (if the counselor is experienced with these), role playing, psychodrama or writing assignments. All of

these approaches help to reduce the inhibitions of the student, improve his communication skills with others, assist him in understanding his own behavior responses and those of others toward him, and provide him with feedback from other people who have learned to accept him and his family problem.

All group members who attended open AA or Ala-non meetings felt that the experience was very helpful in developing insight and hope for their own situation since they could discuss the problem with capable and recovered alcoholics and their families. A spirit of "twelfth-stepping" and AA support develops sometimes in the group which seems to be valuable to the student in the same way that AA has been the most helpful method thus far devised to cope with alcoholism. One of the girls in therapy has now formed and become a sponsor of an Ala-Teen group in a local AA club which she considers the most challenging and rewarding activity of her life. Two group meetings following a weekend and a holiday were filled with rejoicing for members who had been able to effect decided behavior changes in parents while home on vacation. A note of real sadness was experienced by all of us upon the sudden death of one parent who was beginning to profit from his new relationship with his daughter who was working assiduously as a change-agent.

No matter what happens in a group, or what else is stressed, it is most important that a counselor deal with the issue of confidentiality openly and the reasons for it. Because a student finally shares with a counselor or 3 or 4 students his family problem does not mean he is ready to share it with anyone else.

The development of group trust is of prime importance in group counseling. Students are constantly warned at home not to discuss their problems with anyone else (understandable advice from parents which, however, only serves to heighten the student's shame and anxiety). All of these students felt that it was more difficult to deal realistically with personal family problems and get community assistance in a small town; they pointed to the limitations of a small town, the tendency for everyone to gossip, and the lack of urban anonymity.

The counselor, however, should protect the privacy of his students and their families in every way possible. In some school districts, surprising as it may seem, the administration is most guilty of violating the confidentiality of students.

The realization of the potential inherent in the group interaction and its ultimate effectiveness will depend largely upon the skill and personality of the leader. No

matter what a counselor's own personal feelings may be about drinking, extra-marital relationships, or any other moral issue with which these students must deal, the counselor must be able to accept this behavior and help the student work through his feelings about it without making moral judgments.

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CHILD REARING AND CREATIVITY

Ralph E. Van Atta

Restrictive, highly structured child-rearing practices tend to inhibit creative expression (Holland, 1961; Jackson, 1960). Otherwise, relationships between the rearing of the child and his creativity as an adult are obscure. Much is known about creative adults, however, and it is possible to postdict what their childhood relationships to their parents must have been. The task of this paper is to conduct a review of the literature and to formulate several hypotheses about child-rearing and creative behavior.

Creativity Defined

There is considerable confusion about the meaning of the term, creativity. Its meaning may range from sales productivity (Buel, 1960) to special artistic ability (Greenacre, 1957). Creativity is sometimes equated with originality and, thus, the relationship of creativity to mental illness is problematic (Allport, 1960). Randomness of behavior may yield many original responses (Worell and Worell, 1965) so may loss

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of contact with reality. Few responses from either source are aesthetically pleasing or otherwise socially useful. Creativity must be defined for purposes of scientific discussion as an organized or lawful process which regularly results in products which are both original and adaptive (Murray, 1959).

The process leading to a creative act seem always to involve idiosyncratic perception (Scofield, 1960) or insight (Trow, 1950). This is generally preceeded by a period of incubation (Wallas, 1926) which seems to involve preconscious thinking, thinking just below the threshold of awareness (Kubie, 1958; Tauber and Green, 1959). Preconscious thinking yields idiosyncratic products because it closely approaches unconscious thought where the more rigid rules of ordinary logic are suspended. As Kris (1959) suggests, the creative process involves "regression in the service of the ego." The analytic contention that highly creative persons are characterized by greater integration of conscious and unconscious process has been supported in psychometric research (Garwood, 1964).

The conscious-unconscious dimension may be regarded as a response hierarchy, with conscious responses being seen as more dominant. From this perspective, the theory of Mednick coincides with analytic writings. Mednick attributes differences in creative ability to the relative strength of res-

ponses in the hierarchy. Low creatives are regarded as having a steeply sloped hierarchy with a relatively few strong conventional responses and relatively weak remote (original) responses. In contrast, the response hierarchy of the more creative person is seen as less steeply sloped - that is with conventional and remote responses of more uniform strength. The degree of slope of the response hierarchy would seem related to anxiety (Fleischer and Cohen, 1965; Spence, 1958).

Characteristics of Creative Persons

The creative process is a matter for speculation in that it is difficult to investigate under controlled, laboratory conditions. By using a definition similar to the author's researchers have been able to study the characteristics of highly creative persons in contrast to the less creative. Drevdahl (1956) reported that creatives were superior in verbal fluency and facility, and originality. Further, the creatives seemed independent and non-conforming. These results have been verified in a series of subsequent studies with both adults (Barron, 1958; Birney and Houston, 1961; Drevdahl and Cattell, 1958; Garwood, 1964) and children (Holland, 1961; Jackson, 1960; McGuire, 1961). In addition it has been indicated that creatives are more emotionally

expressive and sensitive (Drevdahl and Cattell, 1958). Concurrent with the above studies, Guilford has identified several cognitive dimensions, present in both adolescents and adults (Guilford, 1961, 1962) which seem to be determinants of creativity. Essentially these factors include fluency and flexibility of ideation, originality, and ability to improvise.

General Assumptions

It is postulated that there is an almost universal human potential for creative behaviors. It is also assumed that inherently some persons are capable of making quantitatively and qualitatively more unique and adaptive responses than are others. Further, it is assumed that some persons are better able to realize their inherent capabilities than are others. This set of assumptions does not depart markedly from the assumptions which any psychologist might make about any human behavior. Indeed, Wilson (1958) has devised a very similar set.

The existence of biogenic determiners is implied in the foregoing assumptions. Indeed, the flexibility and adaptability factors which are common correlates of creativity may be manifestations of a counter-part of the schizotaxic (cognitive slippage) factor, which Meehl (1962) has postulated

as predisposing to schizophrenia, or perhaps to the scanning function which Walter (1953) suggests is a component of cerebration. It is the author's assumption that such psychological processes and others, perhaps, comprise the potential for creative behavior.

Developmental Factors

Although the behavior of the human being must be regarded as complex and multidetermined, that of the neonate (birth to two weeks) is largely attributable to biologic factors. Events occurring during the intra-uterine period may induce a certain irritability or sensitivity; however, during the early weeks of life, the behavior of the individual can be satisfactorily explained in terms of physiological factors. At this period, more than any other, the individual is unbiased by experience; to a large extent, he lacks a learning history. Thus, restraints on behavior are physiological rather than psychosocial. Later in life, the individual may be confined by his learning history and by situational as well as by genetic factors.

As the individual matures, in effect, he is shedding physiological restraints. Increasingly, he is responsive to his environment and capable of gratifying his felt needs through self-initiated acts. At some period in his early development (roughly the oedipal period) his response capabili-

ties begin to exceed the limits of propriety. Increasingly, his way of satisfying felt needs conflicts with socially acceptable modes, and increasingly, he is required to obtain gratification in conventional ways. Inevitably, this involves frustration for the child since his range of responses tends to be broader and more direct than those which society will tolerate.

Effects of Variations in Child Rearing Patterns of Creativity

While there is general agreement concerning acceptable responses, as in matters of toilet training and table manners, there are many variations in the processes used to achieve socialized behavior. The individual has capabilities for learning not only the specific behaviors required of him but also for generalizing across many situations. So it is that the child may form generalizations from processes used in his early training; generalization will be facilitated to the degree that there is regularity across training experiences.

The preschool years are critical in developing creative potential. During these years many of a child's responses are bound to be innovations (to him) and many of his encounters are apt to involve new stimuli. New stimuli are bound to be encountered because of the child's growing sensory capabilities, his lack of experience, and his more frequent ventures

into the world. More than at any other time will his responses be innovative. It is the writer's hypothesis that socialization impacts upon the development of the creative potential because it requires generalizations about dealing with new stimuli and about making of new responses.

In forming generalizations, it is as if the nervous system forms a specific equation for effective behaviors in each training situation. Later it simultaneously solves these equations. In this way generally effective behavior patterns are acquired. If specific equations were established for the training situations experienced by a child, it would be possible to predict certain generalized outcomes by the simultaneous solution of these equations. By the same token, it is possible to infer from observation of generalized outcomes, the nature of the specific equations (experiences) which the nervous system has "solved." Using the literature on the characteristics of creative persons as a base line, and effort will now be made to postdict the kinds of experience which would result in the general attributes of the creative person--flexibility and fluency of thought, independence of judgment, and emotional expressiveness.

At least three of the characteristics which seem common to creative persons appear to be closely related to the writer's definition of creativity; spontaneous flexibility, adaptive flexibility, and ideational fluency are all measures of some

type of response frequency and, in each case, the creative person is set apart from the less creative by virtue of a high response frequency. This high response frequency may be interpreted as a generalized freedom to respond of the creative person. As a first general hypothesis, it is predicted that this generalized outcome, freedom to respond, would result if the equations which went into the making of the creative person frequently contained positive reinforcement for uninhibited responding, while those which gave rise to less creative behavior contained systematic elements of negative reinforcement of uninhibited behavior.

If the latitude of responses considered acceptable by parents were broad, the probability of an innovation on the part of the child being positively reinforced would be relatively great. Correspondingly a more restrictive disposition on the part of the parent would reduce the probability of positive reinforcement of innovation. At the same time, a greater need for guidance obtains with a narrow as opposed to a wide latitude of acceptable responses. Thus, used in this sense, restrictiveness tends also to nurture dependence.

But independence of judgment, another attribute of the creative person, is not so much a function of reinforcement by type of response as of the source of reinforcement.

Reinforcement may be derived by a child from sources other than his parents. That is, the child may obtain gratification or may encounter pain and discomfort as a rather natural consequence of his own actions. The extent of dependence of judgment, it is hypothesized, is positively related to the frequency of parental reinforcement and negatively associated with the frequency of situational reinforcement.

Influencing the amount of reinforcement required from parental sources is the complexity of the training task. Compulsive parents, those given to emphasis on detail, may require more complex sequences of highly specific responses than would less compulsive parents. Because a greater degree of response precision is required, innovations of the child are apt to miss and hence be negatively reinforced; to obtain a hit, more guidance from parents is required. Hence, it is hypothesized that parental compulsivity, when it heightens the elaborateness of training tasks, is negatively related both to freedom to respond and to independence of judgment.

Emotional expressiveness suggests not only frequency of emotional responses, but also ability to overtly display emotion, to communicate it to others, and, perhaps, to regard it as sufficient basis for action. To a large extent, this quality may be derived from the three dimensions of child rearing

situations already mentioned: (1) latitude of acceptable response; (2) complexity of response requirements; (3) source of reinforcement. Experience emotion will be positively reinforced if there is immediate gratification of the need which underlies it. Accordingly, if child rearing tasks are characterized by some breadth of acceptable responses and by simplicity, the odds are good that experienced emotion will be reinforced. Indeed, opposite conditions are apt to require that the child develop an intense orientation toward external stimulation, and that he suppress his emotions.

Summary

Altogether creative adults seem characterized by a remarkable freedom to respond. They tend to be non-conforming, independent, sensitive, emotionally expressive, original, fluent, and flexible. Such qualities, it has been suggested, reflect deeply entrenched attitudes toward innovation. It seems reasonable to propose, as has been done here, that attitudes toward freedom to innovate and freedom to respond in new stimulus situations are conditioned when the individual is at the stage which calls for maximum innovation--the early years of life. Attitudes of parents toward innovation reflected in the latitude of child behaviors they find acceptable, the complexity of the training tasks they pose, and the exploratory behavior they tolerate, are strongly determinant of the child's future creativity.

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